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**TITLE**

**The time course of ongoing activity during neuritis and following axonal transport disruption**

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**RUNNING HEAD**

Axonal transport disruption-induced ectopic activity

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## ABSTRACT

Local nerve inflammation (neuritis) leads to ongoing activity and axonal mechanical sensitivity (AMS) along intact nociceptor axons, and disrupts axonal transport. This phenomenon forms the most feasible cause of radiating pain, such as sciatica. We have previously shown that axonal transport disruption without inflammation or degeneration also leads to AMS, but does not cause ongoing activity at the time point when AMS occurs, despite causing cutaneous hypersensitivity. However, there have been no systematic studies of ongoing activity during neuritis or non-inflammatory axonal transport disruption. In this study, we present the time course of ongoing activity from primary sensory neurons following neuritis and vinblastine-induced axonal transport disruption. Whereas 24% of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons had ongoing activity during neuritis, few (<10%) A- and C-fiber neurons showed ongoing activity 1-15 days following vinblastine treatment. In contrast, AMS increased transiently at the vinblastine treatment site, peaking on day 4-5 (28% of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons) and resolved by day 15. Conduction velocities were slowed in all groups. In summary, the disruption of axonal transport without inflammation does not lead to ongoing activity in sensory neurons, including nociceptors, but does cause a rapid and transient development of AMS. Since it is proposed that AMS underlies mechanically-induced radiating pain, and a transient disruption of axonal transport (as previously reported) leads to transient AMS, it follows that processes that disrupt axonal transport, such as neuritis, must persist to maintain AMS and the associated symptoms.

## **NEW AND NOTEWORTHY**

Many patients with radiating pain lack signs of nerve injury on clinical examination, but may have neuritis, which disrupts axonal transport. We have shown that axonal transport disruption does not induce ongoing activity in primary sensory neurons but does cause transient axonal mechanical sensitivity. The present data complete a profile of key axonal sensitivities following axonal transport disruption. Collectively, this profile supports that an active peripheral process is necessary for maintained axonal sensitivities.

## **KEYWORDS**

Axonal transport disruption, vinblastine, ongoing activity, axonal mechanical sensitivity, neuropathic pain

## 64 INTRODUCTION

65 Conditions that cause radiating pain remain prevalent. Examples of such conditions include non-  
66 specific arm or back pain, sciatica, fibromyalgia, whiplash associated disorder, diabetes, complex  
67 regional pain syndrome, and endometriosis (Dilley and Greening 2012; Dyck et al. 2000; Janig and  
68 Baron 2003; Loeser 1985; Waddell 1987; Woertgen et al. 1998; Zager et al. 1998). Many of these  
69 patients lack signs of a nerve injury on clinical examination. Instead, these patients may have  
70 inflamed nerves (i.e. neuritis) that are otherwise intact and are considered normal using typical  
71 clinical tests. Magnetic resonance imaging studies in some of these patients have identified  
72 increases in T2-weighted signal intensity along nerve trunks that are consistent with neuritis (Dilley  
73 et al. 2011; Greening et al. 2018).

74 A rat model of neuritis has given much of our understanding about the mechanisms that underlie  
75 pain in these patients. In this model, animals develop transient behavioral sensory hypersensitivities  
76 to tactile and thermal stimuli in the absence of axonal degeneration (Bove et al. 2003; Chacur et al.  
77 2001; Eliav et al. 1999; Pulman et al. 2013). At some time points following neuritis induction, the  
78 axons of intact nociceptors fire spontaneously, respond to direct mechanical stimulation at the site  
79 of inflammation (Bove et al. 2003; Dilley et al. 2005; Richards and Dilley 2015), and become sensitive  
80 to noxious inflammatory chemicals (Govea et al. 2017). Such ectopic activity and sensitivity  
81 constitute the most feasible source of afferent nociceptor activity contributing to spontaneous pain  
82 and mechanically-evoked radiating pain that are reported in patients in the absence of nerve injury  
83 (Dilley and Greening 2012). This activity may also contribute to the afferent barrage that is reputed  
84 to drive central mechanisms that cause cutaneous hypersensitivities (Campbell and Meyer 2006;  
85 Gracely et al. 1992; Woolf 2011; Xie et al. 2005).

86 We have shown that neuritis disrupts fast axonal transport along intact sensory axons, and that such  
87 disruption leads to axonal sensitivities (Dilley and Bove 2008a; Dilley et al. 2013). We have

hypothesized that the mechanisms underlying these sensitivities involve the accumulation and insertion of ion channels at the site of disruption. The effects of axonal transport disruption along intact axons can be examined by applying low doses of the vinca alkaloid, vinblastine, to the rat sciatic nerve (Dilley and Bove 2008a; Fitzgerald et al. 1984). At low doses, perineural vinblastine disrupts microtubule polymerization without causing axonal degeneration or inflammation (Dilley and Bove 2008a; Fitzgerald et al. 1984; Kashiba et al. 1992; Katoh et al. 1992; Zhuo et al. 1995), which allows axonal transport disruption to be examined in the absence of these potentially confounding factors. Using this model, we have shown that localized vinblastine treatment causes the development of a transient tactile-evoked cutaneous hypersensitivity (Dilley et al. 2013). At approximately the peak of this pain behavior (day 4-5), intact C-fiber neurons develop axonal mechanical sensitivity (AMS) at the treatment site (Dilley and Bove 2008a; Dilley et al. 2013). In a previous study, ongoing activity from A- or C- fiber axons was not increased at this time point, which contrasts from neuritis and nerve injury models where it is a major feature (Boucher et al. 2000; Bove and Dilley 2010; Kajander et al. 1992; Tal and Eliav 1996).

Both neuritis and vinblastine-induced axonal transport disruption are short-lived phenomena (Bove et al. 2009; Dilley et al. 2013), but patient symptoms are often chronic. This inconsistency has led to the suggestion that patients may have a persistent peripheral stimulus. To determine whether such altered nociceptor activities require an active stimulus, we have performed a detailed assessment of the time course of ongoing activity in these models. We also present the temporal profile of vinblastine-induced AMS, to compare with the ongoing activity. Together, the data from the present and past experiments complete the profile of ectopic activity and sensitivity, which informs peripheral mechanisms of radiating pain.

## **METHODS**

### **Animals and surgery**

Experiments were carried out in strict accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act (1986) and Home Office guidelines. Formal approval was also obtained from the University of Sussex Animal Welfare Ethical Review Board. Adult male Sprague Dawley rats (n = 62; 250-500 g; Charles River Laboratories, Kent, UK) were used in this study. Rats were given ad libitum access to food and water. Animals were monitored daily.

Vinblastine was applied to the sciatic nerve of adult rats (n = 32) as previously described (Dilley and Bove 2008a). Under general anesthesia (1.75% isoflurane in oxygen), the left sciatic nerve was exposed by blunt dissection. An 8 mm length was cleared from its connective tissue, which allowed a short length of sterile parafilm (6 x 20 mm; Sigma Aldrich, Dorset, UK) to be positioned under the nerve to prevent leakage of vinblastine onto the surrounding tissue. The sciatic nerve was loosely wrapped with a strip of sterile Gelfoam (5 x 5 x 10 mm; Spongostan<sup>TM</sup>; Ferrosan, Denmark) saturated in 0.1 mM vinblastine (Sigma Aldrich, Dorset, UK; diluted 0.9% w/v saline). Both the Gelfoam and parafilm were removed after 15 min. The nerve was thoroughly rinsed with sterile saline and the muscle and skin were closed using 4/0 monofilament sutures (Vicryl; Ethicon, West London, United Kingdom). The saline group (n = 9) underwent identical surgery, but instead the Gelfoam was saturated with 0.9% w/v saline alone.

Neuritis was induced as previously described (n = 13) (Dilley and Bove 2008b). The left sciatic nerve was exposed by blunt dissection and an 8 mm length was cleared from the surrounding connective tissue. A sterile strip of Gelfoam (5 x 5 x 10 mm) saturated in 50% complete Freund's adjuvant (diluted in sterile 0.9% w/v saline) was loosely wrapped around the nerve. The muscle and skin were closed using 4/0 monofilament sutures.

134

## 135 **Electrophysiology**

136 Single-unit extracellular electrophysiological recordings were made from A- and C-fiber axons in the  
137 L5 dorsal root as previously described (Bove et al. 2003). The L5 dorsal root innervates much of the  
138 plantar surface of the foot that was examined during behavioral testing. Experiments were carried  
139 out at 2 hours to 15 days following vinblastine treatment (n = 32), neuritis (n = 13) and saline  
140 treatment (n = 9), and in untreated animals (n = 9). Briefly, animals were deeply anesthetized (1.5  
141 g/kg 25% w/v urethane intraperitoneally) and the body temperature was maintained at 37°C using a  
142 rectal thermistor probe attached to a feedback controlled heat mat (Harvard Apparatus, Kent, UK). A  
143 mid-sagittal skin incision was made in the lumbar region of the back and a laminectomy was  
144 performed from the L2 to L5 vertebrae. The surrounding skin was sutured to a metal ring to form a  
145 pool. The dura mater was cut to expose the caudal end of the spinal cord and cauda equina, and the  
146 pool was filled with mineral oil warmed to 37°C. The temperature of the pool was monitored during  
147 each experiment and was topped up with warmed mineral oil when necessary. The ipsilateral L5  
148 dorsal root was identified and cut just before it enters the spinal cord, and loosely placed onto a  
149 glass platform (9 mm x 5 mm). Individual fine filaments were teased from the cut end of the nerve  
150 with finely sharpened forceps and carefully positioned on a bipolar recording electrode. In the mid-  
151 thigh, the sciatic nerve was exposed and the surrounding skin flaps were stitched to a metal ring to  
152 form a second mineral oil pool. Ongoing activity and AMS were assessed in different animals  
153 because repeated mechanical stimulation of the sciatic nerve at the treatment site can lead to the  
154 development of ongoing activity (Dilley et al. 2005). Receptive fields were also not examined during  
155 experiments to assess levels of ongoing activity, since noxious mechanical stimulation that is  
156 necessary to activate the terminals of nociceptors can cause ongoing activity (Bove and Dilley 2010;  
157 Richards et al. 2011).



To measure C-fiber conduction velocities ( $<2$  m/s), a bipolar stimulating electrode was positioned under the L5 dorsal root, and activity evoked by electrical stimulation using a constant-voltage isolated stimulator (square wave pulses; 0.5 ms duration, 30-50 V amplitude; Digitimer, Hertfordshire, United Kingdom). We have previously confirmed that the majority of neurons in the L5 dorsal root conduct through the sciatic nerve in the mid-thigh (i.e. through the treatment site) (Dilley et al. 2013). To measure A-fiber conduction velocities ( $>2$  m/s), bipolar stimulating electrodes were positioned under the sciatic nerve immediately distal to the treatment site, and activity evoked by electrical stimulation at this site (square wave pulses; 0.05 ms duration, 3-10 V amplitude). During these stimuli, the limb was held in place by a noose around the foot. It should be noted that muscular contractions of the foot during electrical stimulation at A-fiber strength were only small, whereas stimulation at C-fiber strength would lead to substantial movement artifacts. The long conduction distance (range: 61-88 mm) allowed identification of individual A-fiber neurons. For each recording, the amplitude of the electrical stimulus was increased until the maximum number of waveforms was evoked. Only neurons with easily identifiable waveforms were examined. The number of waveforms on each filament ranged from 1 to 7. Action potentials were amplified (1-2 K), band-pass filtered (10-5000 Hz) and monitored with an oscilloscope. Neuronal activity was digitized, recorded and analyzed with Spike 2 software (Cambridge Electronic Designs, Cambridge, UK). At the end of an experiment, the sciatic nerve and L5 dorsal root were removed and the conduction distance was measured. Conduction velocities of each neuron were calculated from the conduction latency and conduction distance.

In experiments to evaluate ongoing activity, identified neurons were recorded for 3 min. Neurons that fired at least once per minute were considered to exhibit ongoing activity (Bove and Dilley 2010). Muscle spindles, identified by high frequency position- and movement-dependent repetitive firing, were excluded from the data analysis. Neurons with ongoing activity were identified as either A- or C-fiber neurons by spike shape. C-fiber neurons typically had a longer duration and were often biphasic compared to A-fiber neurons, which were monophasic (Dilley et al. 2005).

184 In the experiments to evaluate AMS, A-fiber neurons were not examined, since AMS in the A $\beta$   
185 population is rarely observed following vinblastine treatment (unpublished observations) or in the  
186 neuritis model (Bove et al. 2003). In the thigh, the sciatic nerve was exposed and a plastic platform  
187 (9 mm  $\times$  5 mm), notched to accommodate the nerve, was placed under the nerve with the  
188 treatment site in its center. Receptive fields for isolated neurons were searched below the knee  
189 using mechanical stimuli. Most receptive fields were located by squeezing the periphery, using either  
190 fingers or forceps. The loose property of the skin was exploited to carefully discriminate  
191 cutaneous *versus* deep fields (Bove et al. 2003). Cutaneous neurons had receptive fields that  
192 remained associated with the skin, whereas deep neurons (i.e. neurons that innervate muscles,  
193 tendons and joints) had receptive fields that remained in the same underlying spot irrespective of  
194 the skin position. For example, if a neuron responded to pinching a fold of skin, and maintained  
195 similar responsiveness when this fold was displaced, it was concluded that its receptive field was  
196 cutaneous. In contrast, if the repeated application of the effective stimulus to same underlying point  
197 produced a similar neuronal response despite displacement of the overlying skin, it was concluded  
198 that the receptive field was deep (e.g. in muscle). After identification of a receptive field, the  
199 conduction velocity of the neuron was determined by electrically stimulating the dorsal root while  
200 mechanically stimulating the receptive field. If the neuron fired to mechanically-evoked stimulation  
201 of the receptive field immediately prior to the electrical stimulation of the nerve, the same neuron  
202 evoked by the electrical stimulus would be delayed or would not be initiated (i.e. the electrical  
203 stimulus occurred during the refractory period).

204 Mechanical stimulation of the nerve was manually applied using a silicone probe as previously  
205 described (Bove et al. 2003; Dilley and Bove 2008a; b). The tip of the probe was conical shaped and  
206 cut at the end to form a flat footprint approximately 5 x 3.5 mm. The mechanical stimulus was  
207 applied for 1-2 sec successively along the length of nerve that was located on the notched platform  
208 (i.e. the treatment site or equivalent length in untreated animals). The force applied with the probe  
209 was <20 cN (as measured on an electronic scale). Using the probe in this manner does not interrupt

the conduction of action potentials (i.e. cause damage to axons), confirmed by repeated activation of each neuron at its receptive field following axonal mechanical sensitivity testing. The conduction velocity of axons that were mechanically sensitive was determined by electrically stimulating the dorsal root while mechanically stimulating the treatment site as described above.

## **Data analysis**

Data were tested for normality using Shapiro-Wilk tests. Comparisons between the proportions of neurons with ongoing activity or AMS were made using Fisher's exact tests. Conduction velocities of A- and C-fiber neurons and rates of ongoing activity from C-fiber neurons were compared between time points and to saline treatment using Kruskal-Wallis tests followed by Dunn's post hoc tests. Due to the small number of A-fiber neurons with ongoing activity, rates could not be statistically compared. Comparisons of conduction velocities between neurons with and without AMS were made using Mann-Whitney tests. Conduction velocities and rates of ongoing data are presented as median +/- interquartile range (IQR).

## RESULTS

### Conduction velocities

Conduction velocity data are summarized in Fig. 1. Recordings were made from a total of 2124 neurons in the L5 dorsal root following vinblastine, neuritis, and saline treatment, and in untreated animals. Histograms of the conduction velocities are shown in Fig. 1A and B. Based on the conduction velocities, neurons were characterized as either C/slow A $\delta$ - (0.2-2.1 m/s; n = 1212) or A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons (>10 m/s; n = 912) (Waddell et al. 1989).

In the untreated group, the median conduction velocity of the C/slow A $\delta$ - fiber neurons was 0.58 m/s (IQR = 0.29; combined data from AMS and ongoing activity experiments). Following vinblastine treatment, neuritis and saline treatment, there was a significant slowing of conduction 3-4 hours postoperative compared to the untreated group ( $p < 0.05$ , Kruskal-Wallis test;  $p < 0.001$ , Dunn's post hoc tests). In the vinblastine treated group, conduction was also slowed at 4-5 and 12-15 days following surgery ( $p < 0.05$ , Dunn's post hoc tests). Following neuritis, conduction was slowed at all of the time points examined ( $p < 0.01$ , Dunn's post hoc tests). The maximum slowing was at 3-4 hours postoperative following vinblastine treatment (19.7% compared to untreated; median = 0.47 m/s (IQR = 0.16)) and neuritis (41.2% compared to untreated; median = 0.34 m/s (IQR = 0.22); Fig. 1C).

In the untreated group, the median conduction velocity of the A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons was 33.01 m/s (IQR = 12.78). Following both vinblastine and saline treatment, the conduction velocities of the A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons were comparable to the untreated group at the time points examined. Following neuritis, conduction velocities were significantly reduced at 3-4 hours and 1-2 days postoperative ( $p < 0.05$ , Kruskal-Wallis test;  $p < 0.01$ , Dunn's post hoc tests). The maximum reduction was at 3-4 hours following treatment (20.8% compared to untreated; median = 26.16 m/s (IQR = 8.81) Fig. 1D).

## Ongoing activity

The proportion of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons in each group with ongoing activity is summarized in Fig. 2A. Ongoing activity developed in 5.3% of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons in the untreated group, with a median firing rate of 0.60 (IQR = 1.03) Hz. Following vinblastine treatment, the proportions of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons with ongoing activity ranged from 6.0 to 10.8% at the time points examined, which were not significantly different from the untreated group ( $p > 0.24$ , comparing individual time points to untreated) or following saline treatment ( $p > 0.12$  at 3-4 hours and 4-5 days postoperative, Fisher's exact tests). The median rate of ongoing activity in these neurons was  $< 0.35$ Hz, which was comparable between time points ( $p = 0.21$ , Kruskal-Wallis test; Table 1). In contrast to vinblastine treatment, there was a significant increase in ongoing activity from C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons following neuritis on day 4-5 postoperative, with 23.9% (21/88) of neurons firing spontaneously ( $p < 0.05$  Fisher's exact test, compared to untreated and saline-treated). The rates of ongoing activity following neuritis at 1-2 days postoperative were significantly increased compared to 3-4 hours and 12-15 days postoperative ( $p < 0.05$ , Kruskal-Wallis test;  $p < 0.05$ , Dunn's post hoc tests). The firing patterns were all irregular (e.g. Fig. 2B).

The proportion of A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons in each group with ongoing activity is summarized in Fig. 3A. Ongoing activity was present in only 1 A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neuron (1.3%, 1/79 neurons) in the untreated group, which had an irregular slow (0.02 Hz) firing pattern (Fig. 4B). Following vinblastine treatment, ongoing activity was observed in 1.1 to 5.3% of A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons at the time points examined, which was not significantly different from the untreated group ( $p > 0.20$  comparing individual time points to untreated) or to saline treatment ( $p > 0.68$  at 3-4 hours and 4-5 days postoperative, Fisher's exact tests). Following neuritis, ongoing activity was observed in 1.3 to 6.5% of A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons, which was also not significantly different from the untreated group ( $p > 0.14$  comparing individual time points to untreated) or to saline treatment ( $p > 0.44$  at 3-4 hours and 4-5 days

postoperative, Fisher's exact tests). Median rates of ongoing activity in all A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons were low (median rate < 0.24 Hz; Table 1). Firing patterns were all irregular (e.g. Fig. 3B).

#### **Axonal mechanical sensitivity**

The proportion of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons in each group with deep and cutaneous receptive fields that developed AMS is summarized in Fig. 4. All of the neurons had receptive fields below the knee. The receptive fields of each of these neurons had a high mechanical threshold, responding to firm squeezing of the receptive field. Axonal mechanical sensitivity testing was repeatable and activation of the receptive field before and following testing confirmed that the axons remained intact. The majority of AMS 'hotspots' were either immediately proximal to, or at, the treatment site. No AMS 'hotspots' were found distally. AMS did not develop in the untreated (0/28 neurons) or saline-treated groups (0/23 neurons). Following vinblastine treatment, AMS was detected only in neurons with deep receptive fields (i.e. in muscles or joints), that is, none of the neurons with cutaneous receptive fields exhibited AMS. Axonal mechanical sensitivity developed rapidly, with 15.8% (6/38) of all C-fiber neurons responding to direct mechanical stimulation at the treatment site on day 1-2 postoperative ( $p < 0.05$  compared to untreated (0/28), Fisher's exact test). The proportion of neurons with AMS reached a maximum on day 4-5, with 27.6% (8/29) of all neurons responding to mechanical stimulation ( $p < 0.01$  and  $p < 0.05$  compared to untreated and saline-treated on day 4-5 postoperative (0/23) respectively, Fisher's exact test). On day 8-9, 8.3% (2/24) of all neurons developed AMS. By day 13-15, AMS had completely reversed with 0% (0/26) of neurons being mechanically sensitive. The median conduction velocity of the neurons that developed AMS was 0.55 (IQR 0.26) m/s ( $n = 16$ ), which was not significantly different from those that were not mechanically sensitive (combined median for 1-2, 4-5 and 8-9 days postoperative = 0.60 (0.26) m/s;  $n = 75$ ;  $p = 0.34$ , Mann-Whitney test).

## DISCUSSION

Our experiments show that inflammation of the axons of C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber-neurons, which are likely to be nociceptors, causes transient ongoing activity that reaches a maximum on day 4-5 following induction and decreases to control levels after 2 weeks. The observation that vinblastine treatment does not evoke a statistically significant increase in ongoing activity at any postoperative point supports that inflammation is key to the development of axonal ongoing activity. Combined, these observations support that if undamaged peripheral nociceptors exhibit ongoing activity, there must be a persistent source of inflammation. The findings may be directly applicable to patients with persistent radiating pain, which may be due to focal inflammation anywhere along the clinically implicated peripheral nerve. The results also clearly demonstrate the vulnerability and adaptability of small diameter unmyelinated axons to subtle changes in their environment.

Since neuritis disrupts axonal transport, we have proposed that the cellular components necessary for the development of ongoing activity are transported by fast axonal transport and accumulate at the inflamed site. These cellular components might include immune receptors and/or ion channels, such as hyperpolarization activated channels, which have also been implicated in the mechanisms of ongoing activity (Emery et al. 2011; Richards and Dilley 2015; Weng et al. 2012). The lack of an increase in ongoing activity in A- or C-fiber neurons up to 15 days following vinblastine-induced axonal transport disruption is consistent with the necessity for inflammation to activate the altered axons; vinblastine is in fact anti-inflammatory by virtue of its anti-mitotic properties. Furthermore, the sensitivity of C-fiber axons following the direct application of noxious inflammatory chemicals to the vinblastine treatment site (Govea et al. 2017) is consistent with the immune-mediated activation of accumulated cellular components.

Data from this study add to the “peripheral generator” theory, which proposes that an ongoing or intermittent afferent barrage from nociceptors is required to maintain the cutaneous symptoms

associated with neuropathic pain (Campbell and Meyer 2006; Gracely et al. 1992; Woolf 2011; Xie et al. 2005). The lack of increased ongoing activity from A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ - or C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons at any of the examined time points following vinblastine treatment suggests that the previously reported tactile-evoked cutaneous hypersensitivity in this model may be driven by AMS, since the time course of this sensitivity is comparable to the hypersensitivity (Dilley et al. 2013).

The appearance and resolution of C-fiber AMS is consistent with the time course of slowed axonal transport that we have shown in this model (Dilley et al. 2013). Axons that were mechanically responsive were most likely nociceptors, since a high mechanical threshold was required to stimulate the receptive fields. The time course of AMS contrasts from neuritis, where similar activity persists beyond one month (Dilley and Bove 2008b). This difference most likely reflects the longer duration of axonal transport disruption following neuritis (Dilley et al. 2013).

The transient development of neuritis-induced ongoing activity and AMS, and vinblastine-induced AMS, contrasts from the reported chronicity in patients. In both models, altered nociceptor activity occurs when there is an active peripheral stimulus. When the stimulus is absent, such as when axonal transport has recovered and levels of specific inflammatory chemicals have resided (Pulman et al. 2013), sensitivities resolve. These observations support that in patients, a peripheral stimulus, such as inflammation, must be active to cause persistent and spontaneous pain, and movement-evoked radiating pain. This hypothesis is consistent with MRI findings of possible nerve inflammation in patients with chronic whiplash associated disorder (Greening et al. 2018), and also with the persistent symptoms in a rat model of repetitive motion disorders, where neuritis is a prominent feature (Barbe et al. 2013). Therefore, persistent nerve inflammation, due to injury to surrounding soft tissues or direct irritation of the affected nerve, is a probable cause of prolonged focal axonal transport disruption that may underlie altered nociceptor activity.

In summary, altered nociceptor activity may cause persistent and spontaneous pain (mainly through the development of nociceptor ongoing activity) and radiating pain (through the development of



AMS). Many patients with these symptoms lack signs of nerve injury on routine clinical examination. In such patients, the underlying mechanisms may involve inflammation-induced axonal transport disruption. A detailed examination of ongoing activity following neuritis and vinblastine-induced axonal transport disruption has shown that neuritis causes the transient development of ongoing activity in C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons. The lack of ongoing activity in A- or C-fiber neurons at any of the examined time points following vinblastine treatment is consistent with the need for inflammation to drive ongoing activity. It also raises the question as to whether such activity is essential for the development of the associated cutaneous hypersensitivities. The present data also show that AMS develops rapidly following vinblastine treatment but is relatively short-lived. The present work adds to our understanding of the relative contributions of ectopic activity and reinforces the underestimated role of AMS in neuropathic pain mechanisms. It also supports that for pain to persist, an active stimulus that causes altered axonal transport, such as neuritis, must also persist. Concerning animal welfare, treating nerves with low doses of vinblastine provides a less severe model to examine the role of axonal transport disruption in neuropathic pain mechanisms. It avoids cutting nerves, which can lead to adverse effects, and allows axonal transport disruption along intact axons to be explored.

#### **DECLARATION OF INTEREST**

The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest regarding this work.

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## FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Conduction velocities of C- and A-fiber neurons. (A, B) Histogram of the conduction velocities of (A) C/slow A $\delta$ - and (B) A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons for each group. (C, D) Median conduction velocities of (C) C/slow A $\delta$ - and (D) A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons for each group at different postoperative time points. Saline-treated animals were only examined at 3-4 hours postoperative and on days 4-5. The number of C/slow A $\delta$ - and A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons in each group at each time point ranged from 72 to 147. C/slow A $\delta$ -fiber neurons were characterized by electrical stimulation of the L5 dorsal root (see Fig. 2), whereas A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons were characterized by electrical stimulation of the sciatic nerve (see Fig. 3). \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$  compared to untreated; †††  $p < 0.001$ , ††††  $p < 0.0001$  compared to saline treatment (Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc test). Error bars = IQR.

Fig. 2. Development of ongoing activity in C/slow A $\delta$ - fiber neurons. (A) The percentage of ongoing activity is shown for the untreated, saline-treated, vinblastine-treated and neuritis groups at different postoperative time points. Numbers of neurons with ongoing activity are given. A schematic of the electrophysiology set-up is also shown. The recording (Rec) and stimulating (stim) sites at the L5 dorsal root are indicated. The treatment site is shown along the sciatic nerve in the mid-thigh (greyed area). \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$  (Fisher's exact test). (B) Typical patterns of ongoing activity. Inserts: expanded waveforms.

Fig. 3. Development of ongoing activity in A $\alpha$ / $\beta$ -fiber neurons were characterized by electrical stimulation of the L5 dorsal root (see Fig. 2), whereas A-fiber neurons were characterized by electrical stimulation of the sciatic nerve (see Fig. 3).-fiber neurons. (A) The percentage of ongoing activity is shown for the untreated, saline-treated, vinblastine-treated and neuritis groups at different time points postoperative. Numbers of ongoing neurons are given. A schematic of the electrophysiology set-up is also shown. The recording site at the L5 dorsal root is indicated (Rec). The nerve was stimulated along the sciatic nerve in the mid-thigh (Stim), immediately distal to the treatment site (greyed area). (B) Typical patterns of ongoing activity. Ongoing spindles are also present in the untreated and neuritis traces (smaller units). Insert: expanded waveforms.

490

491 Fig. 4. Development of axonal mechanical sensitivity in C/slow A $\delta$ - fiber neurons. (A) The percentage  
492 of AMS in deep and cutaneous (denoted by D and C respectively) innervating neurons is shown for  
493 the untreated group and the vinblastine-treated groups at different time points postoperative.  
494 Horizontal lines indicate the combined percentage of axons with mechanical sensitivity for deep and  
495 cutaneous innervating neurons. Numbers of neurons with AMS innervating deep and cutaneous  
496 structures are given. A schematic of the electrophysiology set-up is also shown. The recording (Rec)  
497 and stimulating (Stim) sites at the L5 dorsal root are indicated. The treatment site is shown along the  
498 sciatic nerve in the mid-thigh (greyed area). A notched platform was positioned under the treatment  
499 site to support the nerve during AMS testing. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$  compared to untreated, for  
500 percent of neurons innervating deep structures (Fisher's exact test). †  $p < 0.05$ , ††  $p < 0.01$  compared  
501 to untreated, for all neurons (combined deep + cutaneous). (B) The response pattern of AMS is  
502 linked to the mechanical stimulus. Horizontal lines above trace represent the duration of the  
503 mechanical stimuli. Inserts: expanded waveforms.

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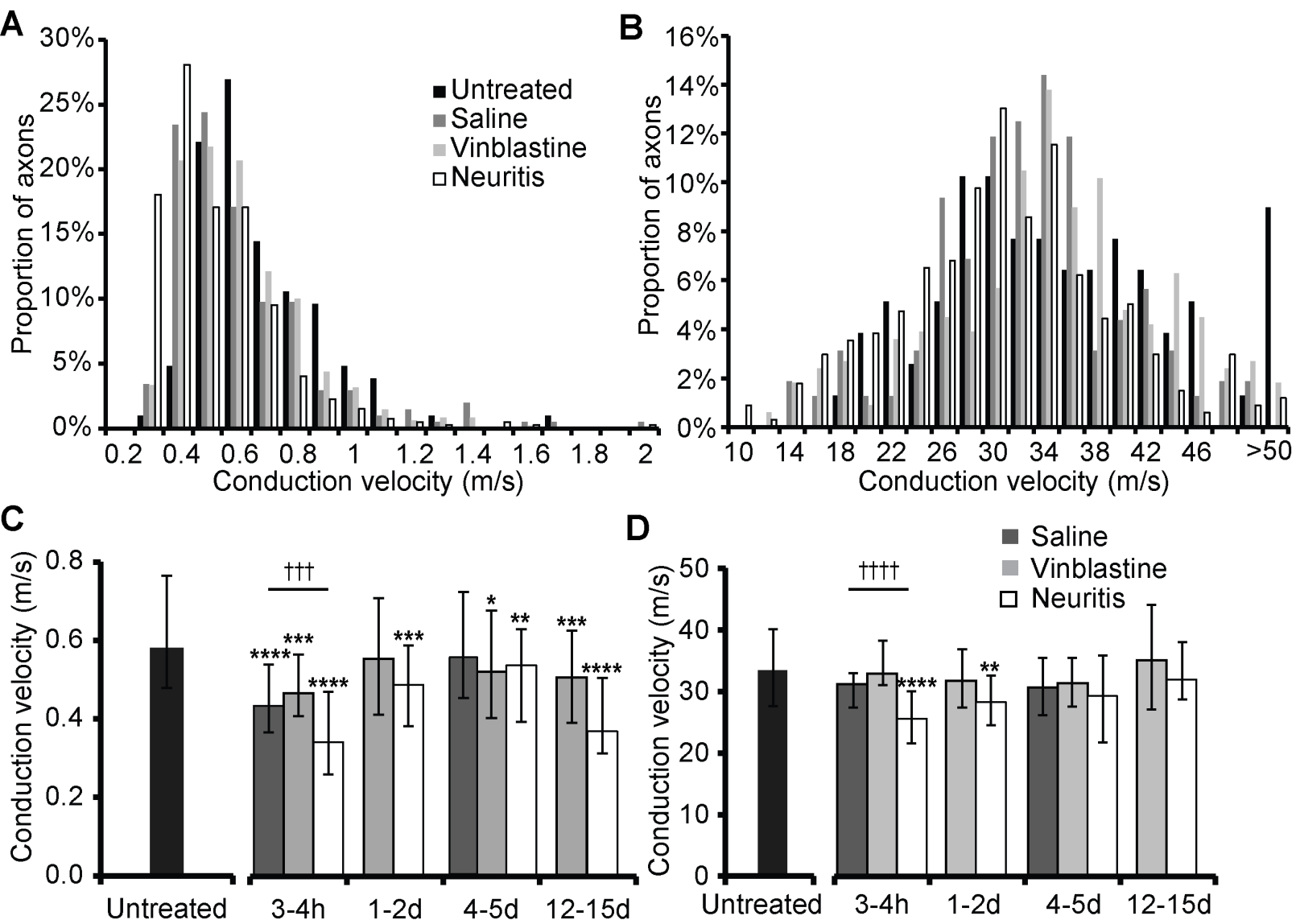
## TABLES

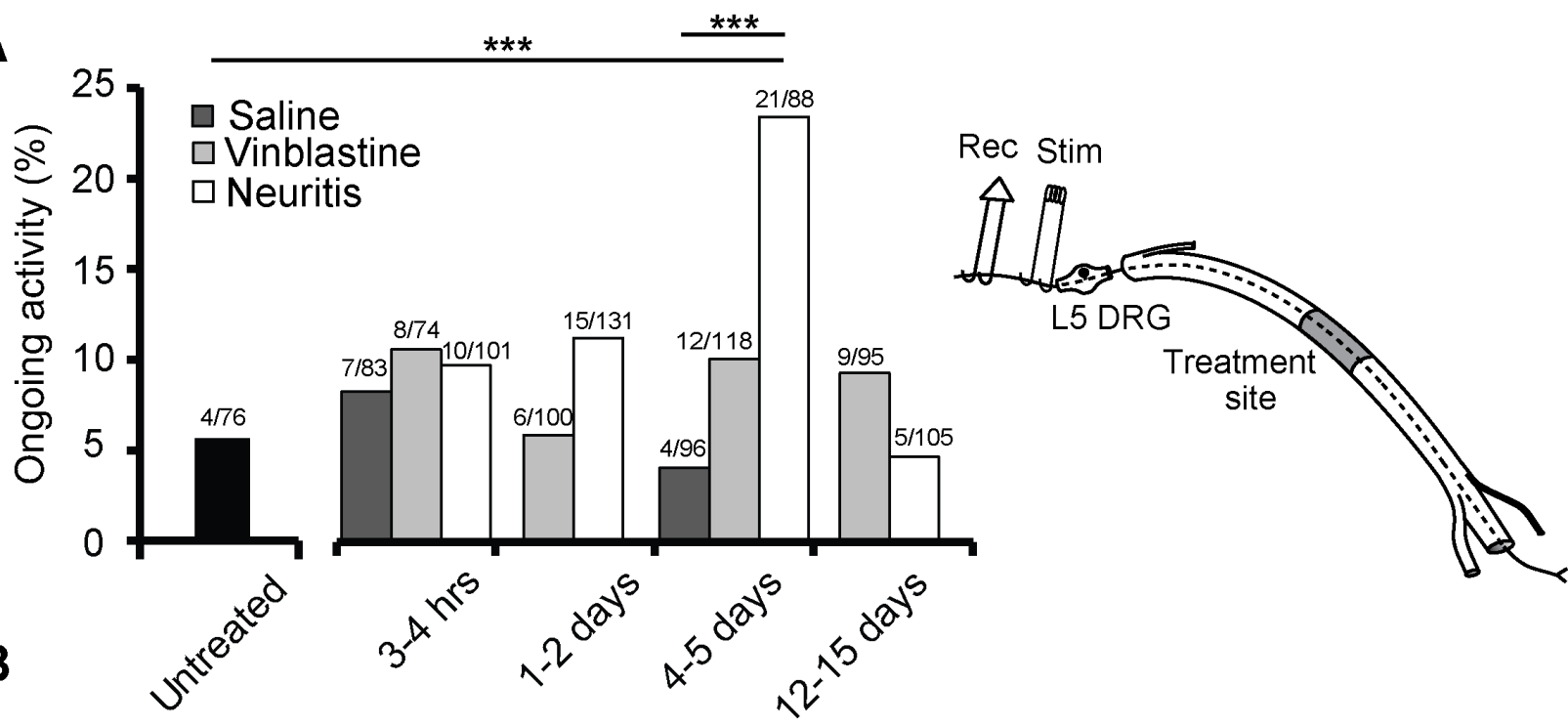
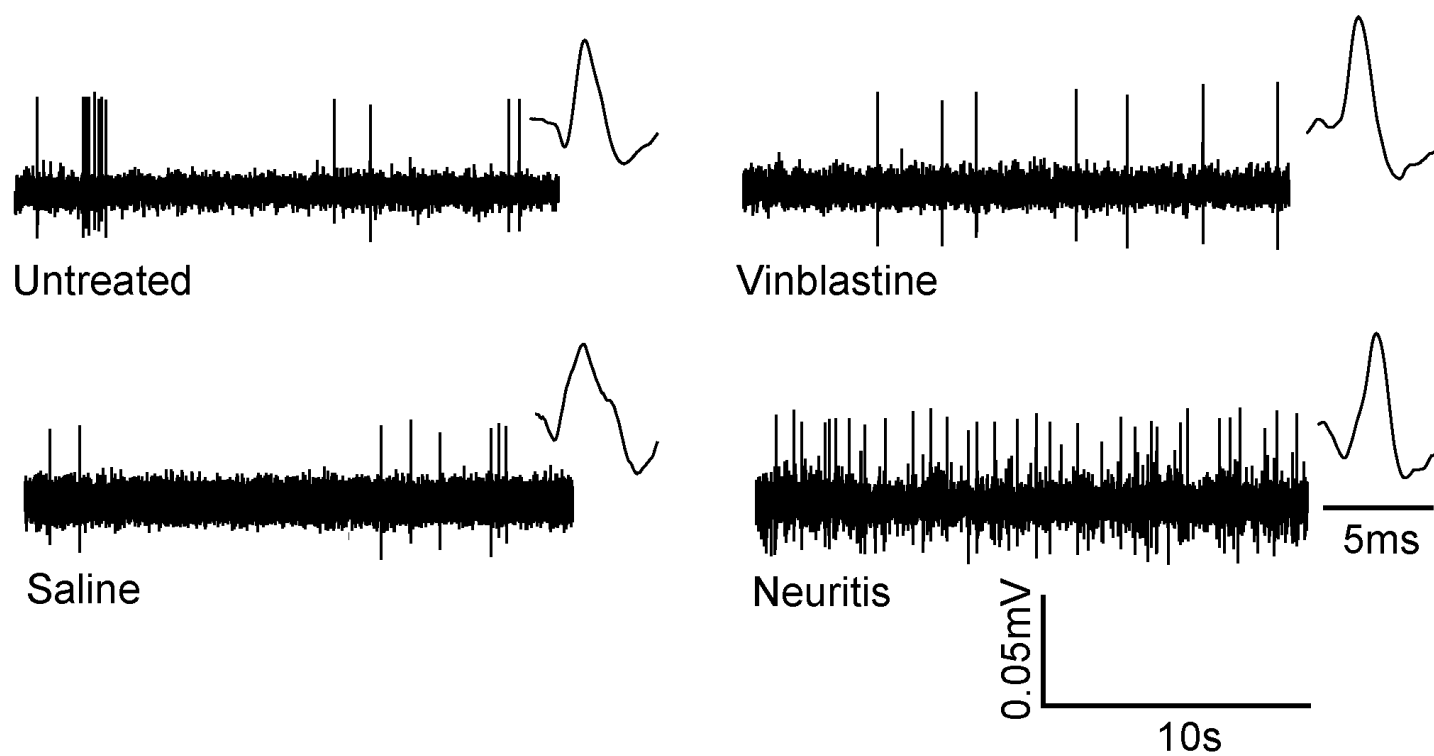
**Table 1. Rates (Hz) of ongoing activity in C/slow A $\delta$ - and A- fiber neurons.**

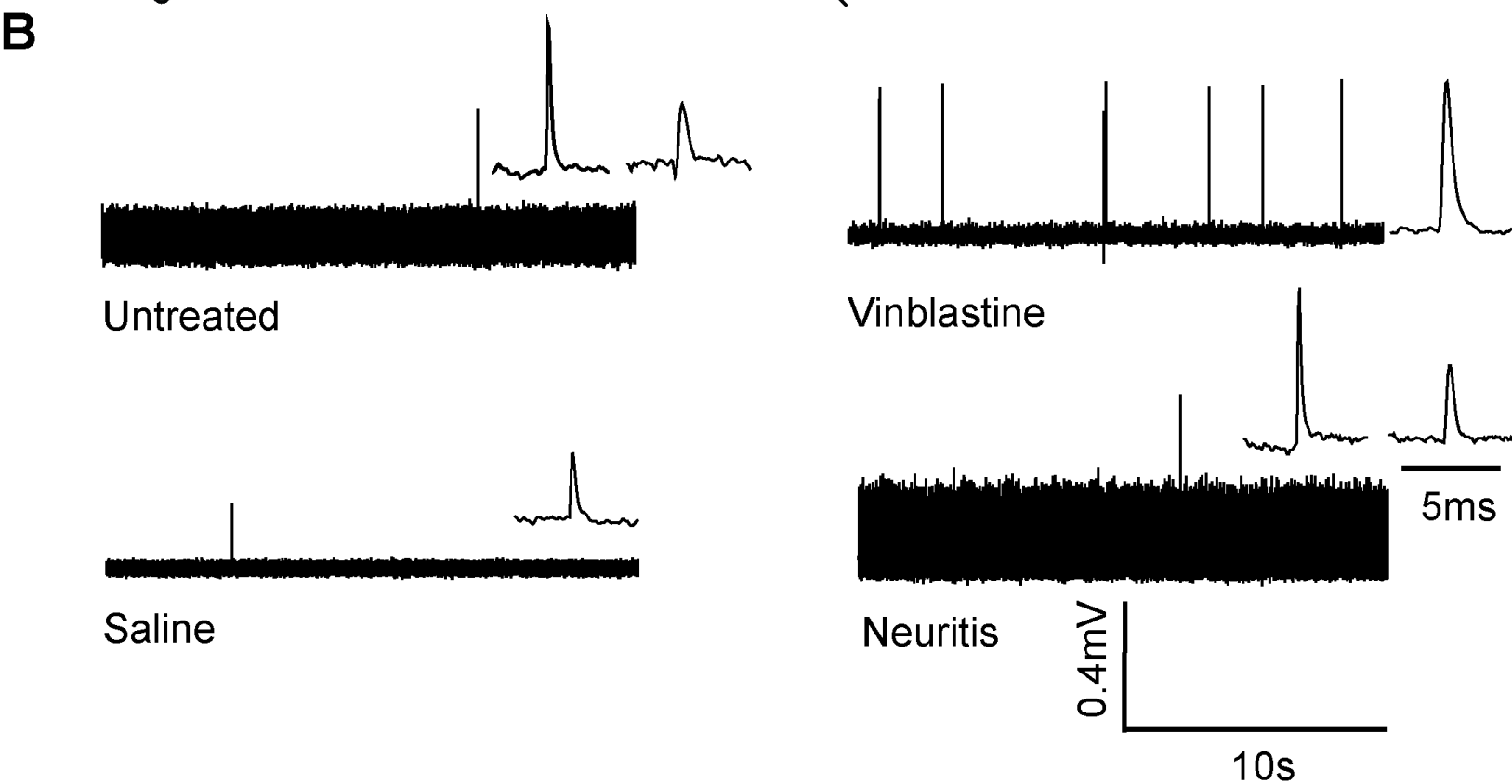
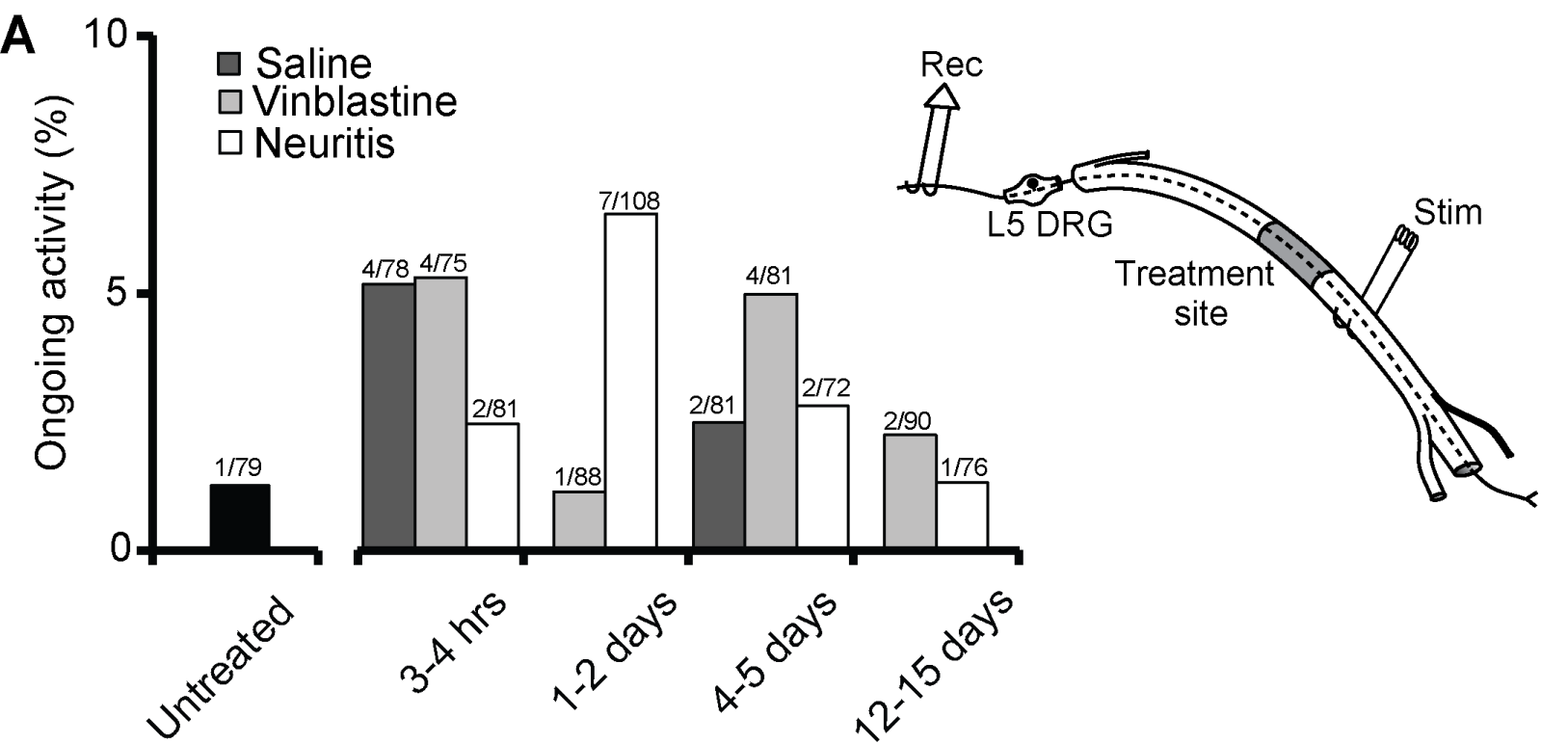
Treatment	Time PO	C/slow A $\delta$ - fiber neurons		A-fiber neurons	
		Median	IQR	Median	IQR
Untreated	0	0.60	1.03	0.02	0.00
Vinblastine	3-4hr	0.35	0.62	0.14	0.28
	1-2d	0.17	0.28	0.11	0
	4-5d	0.26	0.48	0.04	0.08
	12-15d	0.08	0.54	0.24	0.03
Neuritis	3-4hr	0.11	0.19	0.04	0.01
	1-2d	1.27*	1.31	0.09	0.17
	4-5d	0.55†#	1.53	0.11	0.09
	12-15d	0.10	0.13	0.02	0.00
Saline	3-4hr	0.14	0.10	0.03	0.15
	4-5d	0.47	0.56	0.21	0.20

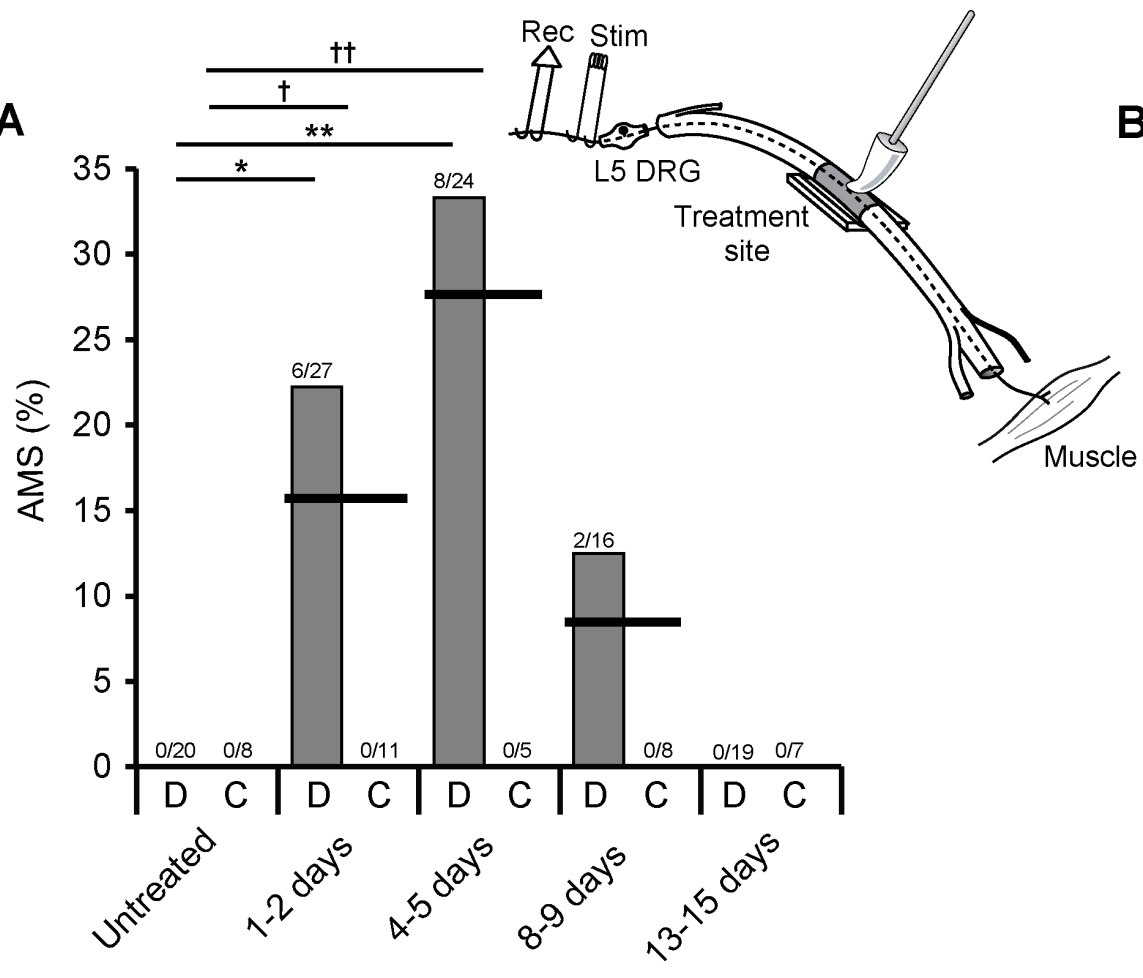
\* p< 0.05 compared to 3-4 hours and 12-15 days postoperative ; † p< 0.05 compared to 3-4 hours postoperative (Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc tests). # Based on 20 neurons (Rate could not accurately be determined for one neuron). PO postoperative, hr = hour, d = day.





**A****B**



**A****B**